

## **Grade Seven—World History and Geography: Medieval and Early Modern Times**

### **Global Overview: 300-1750 CE**

The medieval period provides students with opportunities to study the rise and fall of empires, the diffusion of religions and languages, and significant movements of people, ideas, and products. Students trace the development of medieval civilizations and make connections with regional and present day world maps. We can identify several major changes that took place during medieval and early modern times.

- Long-term **economic** growth, despite some temporary dips, in the world's population, beyond any level reached in ancient times.
- **Gradual decline of feudalism and rise of capitalism**
- A great increase in agricultural and city-dwelling populations in the world compared to hunters and gatherers, whose numbers steadily declined.
- Technological advances that gave humans power to produce greater amounts of food and manufactures, **allowing continued global population growth.**
- Expansion of long-distance commercial, technological, and cultural exchanges. By the first millennium BCE, these networks spanned most of Afroeurasia, which encompassed the combined land masses and adjacent islands of Africa and Eurasia. In the Americas, the largest networks were in Middle America and the Andes region of South America. After 1500 CE, a global network of intercommunication emerged.

- The rise of more numerous and powerful kingdoms and empires, especially after 1450 CE, when gunpowder weapons became available to rulers.
- The economic, political, cultural, and technological impact of western maritime exploration.
- Increasing human impact on the natural and physical environment, including new transport technology that allowed the diffusion of plants, animals, and microorganisms to parts of the world where they had previously been unknown.

The chronology may be divided into four major periods to help teachers and students to make sense of the flow of significant changes in world history. Students may explore change in every inhabited part of the world during this period using source documents and evidence from archaeology. Students can use the knowledge they gain in this course to create a school project that promotes understanding of diverse cultures.

#### **300-600 CE: An Era of Troubles**

These centuries were turbulent times for many peoples of the world. Several large empires either collapsed or shrank. These included the Han Empire in China, the kingdom of Kush in northeastern Africa, and the western Roman Empire. Important factors of decline included overextension of imperial military forces, strains on agricultural resources, and disease epidemics. Also, mounted warrior armies from Central Eurasia, including Huns and Germanic tribes,

assaulted China, India, Persia, and the Roman Empire. Commerce on the silk roads across Eurasia decreased. The number of big cities went down from an estimated 75 in 100 CE to only 47 by 500 CE.

Despite these troubles, the Roman state endured in the eastern Mediterranean as the Byzantine Empire. Giant new states arose in Persia (the Sassanids) and India (the Gupta). In West Africa, Ghana emerged as a new commercial kingdom along the southern edge of the Sahara Desert. In East Africa, Aksum flourished as a center of Indian Ocean trade. In the Americas, Maya city-states prospered, and Teotihuacan in central Mexico became one of the largest cities in the world. In Oceania, intrepid Polynesian explorers in outrigger canoes settled new islands. In the realm of culture, both Christianity and Buddhism attracted millions of new converts, partly because people sought moral and spiritual certainties amid the insecurities of the era.

#### **600-1000 CE: New Vitality on the Networks of Exchange**

In the seventh century, a dynamic period of trade and cultural interchange took hold across Afroeurasia. One factor stimulating interconnections was the rise of new empires. One of these began in Arabia where its leader Muhammad preached the monotheistic faith of Islam. A Muslim empire extending from Spain to India did not last long, but its successor, the Abbasid state (751-1258), emerged as a center of trans-hemispheric interchange and the wider spread of Islam. In Asia, the Sui and Tang dynasties (589-907) reunited China, which thereafter became Eurasia's major economic powerhouse. China exerted strong

cultural influences over Korea, Vietnam, and Japan, but those societies also built distinctive civilizations. India was divided into several states, but its export trade rivaled China's. In tropical Southeast Asia, Srivijaya emerged after 600 as a far-flung trading empire, and both Hindu and Buddhist ideas emanating from India gained strength in the region. To the west, the Byzantine state entered a time of cultural flowering. Western Europe remained divided into numerous small polities except for Charlemagne's attempt at empire building (768-814). Nevertheless, Europe's population trended upward and commercial links to neighboring regions became stronger. In the northern half of Africa, trans-Saharan caravan traffic flourished, and Ghana rose to its zenith at the desert's southern edge. To the south, Bantu-speaking farmers continued to found communities, displacing older gathering populations and expanding town and trade networks. In the middle Americas, the Maya city-states entered a time of disorder, but the Toltecs built an extensive trade web.

#### **1000-1450 CE: Expanding Webs of Interaction**

The year 1000 CE represents a turning point in history because several key long-term changes took shape about that time. In Afroeurasia, population growth began to speed up, a trend linked to improved farm technology, settlement of new lands, and a decline in death rate from certain infectious diseases. Nevertheless, epidemics could strike. The Black Death of the 1300s caused the population of Europe and the Mediterranean region to plummet temporarily by about a third, **increasing the bargaining power of serfs and beginning the long-**

term demise of the institution of serfdom. Generally, though, the Eastern Hemisphere experienced a great expansion of manufacturing, trade, and urbanization. China was among the busiest centers of industry. Farther west, cities such as Damascus and Cairo turned out luxury wares for shipment in all directions. Europe emerged as a new focus of economic growth and urban culture. The peoples of Japan, Korea, Southeast Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa became increasingly linked into the trans-hemispheric web. Nomadic peoples from central Asia succeeded in conquering a number of established civilizations with the forging of the huge Mongol Empire in the thirteenth century. Christianity, Buddhism, Hinduism, and Islam all appealed to people across boundaries of language and culture. Jewish communities became dispersed more widely across Eurasia and North Africa. In the Americas, empire and trade reached a scale never known before, notably with the rise of the Inca state in South America and the Aztec Empire in Mexico.

#### 1450-1750: The Great Global Convergence

On the global scale, the most striking change of these centuries was the interlinking of nearly every inhabited part of the world, especially Afroeurasia with the Americas, as a result of European mariners opening new oceanic passages. Europeans played an increasing role in the rising world economy by dramatically increasing trade, financed largely by gold and silver from the Americas. People, plants, and animals were introduced to places where they had previously been unknown. This “Columbian Exchange” led to profound changes in economies,

diets, social organization, and, in the Americas, to a massive devastation of Indian populations because of exposure to new disease microorganisms. This mortality allowed European newcomers to conquer territories in the Americas. Asia remained the world’s most productive center of agriculture and manufacturing until near the end of this era. Europeans also developed tropical commercial crops in the Americas by bringing in African slaves. These forced migrants outnumbered Europeans in the Americas until the nineteenth century but at the cost of severe economic and demographic disruption in Africa. This era was also the first age of firearms, which contributed to the expansion of several large states in Afroeurasia. The expansion of global communications offered opportunities to the world’s major religions, notably to Christians in the Americas and to Muslims around the Indian Ocean rim. The institution of credit, and differing views about “usury” had far reaching effects on Europe and the Muslim world. Finally, so much change in the world provoked searching investigations into nature and the cosmos, notably the idea put forth in Europe that the universe operates according to natural laws, which human reason can discover and explain. These intellectual investigations posed a threat to the faith and political power of the Church.

#### **The Expansion and Disintegration of the Roman Empire**

This unit builds on the sixth-grade study of Roman civilization, one of several large empires that arose in Eurasia and Africa in the later centuries BCE. Students explore the character and contributions of Roman civilization at its

height. Roman citizenship was initially awarded to people from the provinces as a reward for service, for example, to retired auxiliary soldiers. They and their sons then had the right to vote. Gradually, everyone in the provinces gained citizenship, except for slaves. Broadening citizenship helped the empire run smoothly. Students may look at examples of Roman laws, which also helped solidify the empire. A body of laws was passed down through the centuries and ultimately influenced legal systems in modern states such as France, Italy, and Spain, as well as Latin American countries.

The Romans built cities throughout their empire, where residents benefited from sophisticated art, architecture, and engineering. For example, the Romans constructed huge aqueducts to bring water to cities from many miles away. Students may research images and historical maps for knowledge of the Roman paved road network, which allowed relatively fast travel across the empire. Roman cities also had grand institutions and luxuries, such as theaters, baths (for both bathing and socializing), stadiums, and elegant forums with markets and law courts. Many great thinkers and writers, such as the Pliny the Elder, Juvenal, Plutarch, and Virgil, lived and wrote during the Roman Peace (Pax Romana), the two centuries of prosperity that began with the reign of Augustus Caesar (27 BCE-14 CE).

At its greatest extent, the empire stretched from Britain to Egypt and from the Atlantic to Iraq. Students may analytically compare the western and eastern half of the empire. The western part, which had few cities besides Rome, was poorer and less populated than the east, which had a long tradition of urban life. In the

162 west, the main language of government was Latin, but in the east it was Greek.  
163 People speaking Germanic languages migrated into the empire across its  
164 northeastern frontier, especially along the Rhine and Danube rivers. From the  
165 third century CE onwards, emperors struggled to cope with attacks on these  
166 frontiers. The emperor Diocletian separated the Roman Empire in half in the third  
167 century CE. In the early fourth century, the emperor Constantine oversaw a  
168 period of stability and established a new, eastern capital at Byzantium, which he  
169 renamed Constantinople.

170 Eventually the empire in the west fell, though the eastern half continued to  
171 thrive. Students may examine the range of factors that might have contributed to  
172 the collapse of western Rome. Teachers may point out problems of declining  
173 financial resources, political corruption that undermined citizenship, the rise of  
174 insubordinate military groups, excessive reliance on slave labor, and worsening  
175 frontier assaults and revolts.

176 Christianity began spreading in the empire in the first century CE, becoming  
177 ever more popular though initially banned. It became legal under Constantine,  
178 who convened the first ecumenical council that wrote the Nicene Creed, a  
179 summary of Christian beliefs. Christianity soon became the official religion of the  
180 empire. Students may query why Christianity continued to grow despite the  
181 insecurity that accompanied the decline of the western empire. Teachers may  
182 point out the significance of the early church in preserving and diffusing  
183 knowledge of Roman language, law, philosophy, and art to early medieval  
184 Western Europe.



Students may discuss why the empire survived in the east. Comparative factors include the benefits of having greater manufacturing and commerce, more tax revenues, and more effective defenses against nomadic cavalry attacks from the north. The Byzantine Empire, as the eastern lands became known, had strong historical connections to earlier Hellenistic civilization. This state was highly centralized, and Constantinople (today Istanbul) became the center of the Orthodox Christian Church, which used the Greek language. A variety of different beliefs and practices developed within early Christianity, notably differences between the Roman Catholic, or Latin Church based in Rome, and the Greek Church based in Constantinople. The division of the two churches in the eleventh century marked the first formal institutional break within Christendom. Both the ~~Byzantium~~ Byzantine Empire and Orthodox Christianity had profound cultural and religious influence on peoples of Southeastern Europe and Russia.

### **The Civilizations of Islam**

Muhammad (ca. 570-632 CE) began in 618 CE to preach the faith of Islam in Mecca, a small city in the Arabian Peninsula. Students may examine a climatic map of the Eastern Hemisphere to see that most of this peninsula falls within a long belt of dry country, due to descending air from the equator. This area extends from the Sahara Desert to the arid lands of northern China. Across this dry zone, including Arabia, pastoral nomads herded camels and other animals, and oasis cities sheltered farmers, artisans, and merchants. A map of the hemisphere also shows students that Arabia, the Red Sea, and the Persian Gulf

were natural channels of land and sea trade carrying spices, textiles, and many other goods between the Indian Ocean world and the Mediterranean, including Europe.

Students will learn that Islam became established along with Judaism and Christianity as an “Abrahamic” religion, that is, a faith built on the ancient monotheism of Abraham. According to Muslim tradition, Muhammad, an Arabic-speaking merchant, preached revelations from God. This message declared that human beings must surrender themselves wholeheartedly to the will of the one God and must treat one another with equality and justice. Islamic teachings were set forth principally in the Qur’an, the body of revelations later written down, and in the Sunnah, that is, the sayings and actions of Muhammad. Students learn how the Qur’an and the Sunnah served as foundations for the Shari’ah, the religious laws governing moral, social, and economic life. Islamic law, for example, rejected the older Arabian view of women as “family property,” declaring that all women and men are entitled to respect and moral self-governance. At the same time, students investigate the role of women in Islamic civilizations.

Muhammad also founded a political state in order to defend the young Muslim community. After his death, the supreme leaders of the Muslim community, known as caliphs (*khalifas*), sent armies northward to seize part of the Christian Byzantine Empire and all of Persia. Map study will show students that by 750 CE, the Arab empire centered first in Damascus, then Baghdad, extended from Spain to northern India. At the same time, growing numbers accepted Islam, including

Persians, Greeks, and North African Berbers. Arabic, the language of both the conquerors and the Qur'an, achieved gradual dominance across much of the Middle East and North Africa. Persian also acquired prestige in Muslim civilization as a language of literature and science.

The huge Arab empire broke into several states after 750, but most of the Middle East remained unified under the caliphs of the Abbasid dynasty (751-1258). That region, therefore, became a strategic hinge of trade and cultural exchange for the entire Eastern Hemisphere. For example, paper-making technology reached the Middle East from China about the eighth century and spread from there to Europe in the following 300 years. Students may research important food plants that were more widely diffused along the exchange routes, including sugar cane, oranges, melons, eggplants, and spinach. Muslim merchants came to operate from China to the Mediterranean, their trade facilitated by shared acceptance of Shari'ah law.

In Baghdad, **Granada**, and other Muslim-ruled cities, Muslim, Christian, and Jewish scholars collaborated to study ancient Greek, Persian, and Indian writings, forging and widely disseminating a more advanced synthesis of philosophical, scientific, mathematical, geographic, artistic, medical, and literary knowledge. Students may investigate the work of al-Khwarizmi, a Persian mathematician of the ninth century, who applied the base-ten numerical system pioneered in India to the study of algebra, a word derived from the Arabic *al-jabr*, meaning "restoration." Muslim civilization became notably cosmopolitan, as merchants and scholars founded new communities and won converts from sub-

254 Saharan Africa and east to the Indian subcontinent to Southeast Asia.

255 Conversion slowed in India with the emergence of Sikhism in 1469.

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### 257 **China in the Middle Ages**

258 Throughout the medieval era, China had a larger population and economy  
259 than any other major region of the world. During much of that period, it was  
260 politically unified under a succession of dynasties. The first two of these were the  
261 Sui (581-618) and Tang (618-907) Dynasties, whose military campaigns not only  
262 reunited China after three and a half centuries of fragmentation but also  
263 expanded the imperial realm. The Tang rulers also presided over a remarkable  
264 economic and cultural flowering, which continued through the era of the Northern  
265 and Southern Song Dynasties (960-1279). Students may review maps of China,  
266 especially noting the differences in climate and ecology between the northern  
267 Huang He, or Yellow River valley and the southerly Yangzi valley. China's  
268 economic surge in the Tang and Song periods was concentrated in the warm  
269 central and southern latitudes, especially the Yangzi valley. Teachers may ask  
270 students to explore the wide range of changes that occurred between the  
271 seventh and thirteenth centuries: population growth, expansion of food  
272 production, urbanization, spread of manufacturing, and technological innovation.  
273 Chinese laborers and merchants extended the empire's canal and navigable river  
274 system to about 30,000 miles. Blast furnaces quadrupled the output of iron and  
275 steel in the eleventh century alone. Technicians experimented with gunpowder  
276 rockets and bombs. Woodblock printing became a standard industry, and printed

277 books circulated widely. The hundreds of inventions of the Tang and Song eras  
278 included the magnetic compass, advanced kilns for firing porcelain, and wheels  
279 for spinning silk. Chinese farmers perfected the technology of selecting and  
280 drying tea leaves.

281       Students may examine descriptions from source documents of the seagoing  
282 ships that Song naval architects designed. The largest of these vessels were  
283 equipped with as many as five decks and giant sails of bamboo matting. China's  
284 foreign trade soared in the twelfth century, as more Chinese merchants joined  
285 the Malay, Indian, Arab, and Persian traders who crisscrossed the China seas  
286 and the Indian Ocean basin.

287       China suffered devastating invasions between 1211 and 1276, when Mongol  
288 and Turkic cavalry overran most of East Asia and conquered Southwest Asia,  
289 Russia, and penetrated parts of Eastern Europe. Students will learn of the severe  
290 damage these invasions inflicted on China's economy. They will also discover  
291 that once the fighting ended, the Mongol rulers, who established the Yuan  
292 Dynasty (1276-1368), promoted both industry and the caravan trade of the trans-  
293 Eurasian silk roads. The Chinese Ming Dynasty that followed (1368-1644)  
294 practiced similar policies. Between 1405 and 1433, fleets of ships sponsored by  
295 the Ming emperor made seven major voyages to trade and collect tribute in the  
296 Indian Ocean and as far west as the Red Sea and East Africa.

297       Buddhism, introduced in earlier centuries from India, spread widely in China  
298 during the Tang period and began to alter religious life in neighboring Korea and  
299 Japan as well. Buddhist ideas intermingled with those of both Daoism, a Chinese

religion emphasizing private spirituality, and Confucianism, the belief system that stressed moral and ethical behavior. Students may read selections from the writings of neo-Confucian scholars. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, they wove together several strands of the three traditions, emphasizing moral living, daily ritual, and dedication to family and community. Neo-Confucianism also incorporated Buddhist and Daoist ideas about nature and the cosmos.

The Chinese imperial system was guided by Confucian principles. These specified that government should operate as a strict hierarchy of authority from the Emperor, who enjoyed the “Mandate of Heaven” as long as he ruled justly, down to the local village official. Teachers may ask students to compare testing in their school with the Chinese civil service examinations that candidates for imperial office had to take beginning in the eleventh century. These exams ensured that holders of power were not just children of wealthy nobles but had Confucian ethical training and advanced literacy.

#### **The Sub-Saharan Civilizations of Medieval Africa**

As of 500 CE, the populations of farming and animal-herding peoples in Africa south of the Sahara Desert were steadily rising. This trend included West Africa, a region that overlapped four large zones of climate and vegetation running west to east. By studying maps and geographic information, students will learn that the most northerly belt is the intensely arid Sahara, home to oasis-dwellers and pastoral nomads. Just south of the desert is the semiarid Sahel zone, where cattle and camel herding predominated. Third is the tropical grassland, or

savanna, which had sufficient rainfall to support farmers and their fields of rice, sorghum, and millet. In the far south is the wet tropical forest. There, settled life depended on cultivation of root crops and other forest foods.

In the Sahel and savanna, agriculture and herding supported the growth of regional trade. Tracing a great arc across West Africa, the Niger River provided a natural highway of communication linking different ecological zones. Farming, trade, and early development of iron smelting stimulated town-building. Teachers may guide students to the rich archaeological evidence for Jenne-jeno, a city that flourished in the upper Niger River valley in the early centuries CE. Its artisans produced iron tools, copperware, gold jewelry, and fine painted ceramics.

Population and agrarian wealth were more than sufficient to support state-building ventures south of the Sahara in the first millennium CE. Students may read selections from Arab geographers who described the Sahel and Sudan, labeling the region the *bilad al-sudan*, that is, “the land of black-skinned people,” or simply the Sudan. Among centralized states, Ghana emerged about the eighth century in the western part of the Sahel zone. The king of Ghana commanded a large royal household, a hierarchy of officials, and an army of infantry archers.

The dense populations that inhabited the Mediterranean lands and the Sudan created interconnections by pioneering trans-Saharan camel caravan routes. Both Muslim and Christian rulers and traders in the Mediterranean region craved African gold, notably for coinage. West African merchants acquired gold from mines in the Sudan and shipped it to towns in the Sahel, where caravans carried it northward. Some of this African bullion then flowed into Europe or eastward

toward India. Students may investigate how the trans-Saharan routes connected to the larger network that embraced most of Eurasia. Northbound caravans also shipped ivory, ostrich feathers, and slaves captured in raids and wars. Merchants force-marched these captives, predominantly young women, to the Mediterranean or Middle East principally to serve in Muslim households and armies. The southbound trade included salt from Saharan mines, a commodity that commanded huge demand in West Africa. Other southbound commodities included copper, horses, and Arabic books. Arabic- and Berber-speaking merchants from North Africa likely introduced Islam to West Africa in the eighth century. They established bonds with Sudanic traders, many of whom converted to the new faith. The Ghana empire had Muslim officials, though the kings probably did not convert.

Ghana slowly crumbled in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, but around 1240, Mali emerged to rule over a large part of the western Sudan. Students may read the epic of Sunjata (Sundiata), a heroic king associated with the rise of Mali. This epic is an example of historical knowledge that West Africans preserved orally in poetry and song. Mali's rulers accumulated wealth collecting tributes from African farmers and taxing trans-Saharan trade. The royal court employed staffs of both foreign and native-born Muslims as administrators, and Arabic became the written language of government and diplomacy. Most of the kings and their officials professed Islam and introduced Islamic law, though most of the Sudan's population adhered to their local religions for several more centuries. In the 1300s Timbuktu, a city near the Niger River, rose as a regional center of



trade and Islamic learning. Students may read selections from the travel book of Ibn Battuta, the Moroccan lawyer who visited the Sudan in the 1350s. Mali reached its zenith in the mid-fourteenth century, but civil struggles and revolts led to its gradual decline. Other empires, notably the Songhay state, followed in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

### **Medieval Japan**

The hunting and gathering people who inhabited Japan's island chain adopted agriculture about 2,500 years ago, when farmers migrated from Korea to introduce rice cultivation. Students may use maps to situate the Japanese archipelago within the larger geography of East Asia. The coming of agriculture represents an early example of cultural and commercial contacts between Japan and both Korea and China. After farming arrived, Japan's population grew steadily, and its interactions with the wider Eurasian world became progressively more complex.

Between the fifth and eighth centuries CE, land-holding chieftains on Japan's central island of Honsho accumulated enough military power to found a central state and a dynasty called the Yamato. Those rulers claimed the title of "heavenly sovereign," or emperor. Japanese tradition links the major political and cultural developments of that period with Prince Shokotu (574-622), who served as regent for a reigning empress.

About 850 CE, the Yamato rulers lost their grip on political affairs, and aristocratic palace families assumed real power. The emperors retained their

throne, but played mainly a ritual role. The population generally abided by local beliefs and ceremonies, known as Shinto, to influence the supernatural world, including the spirits of ancestors. The Yamato emperors and empresses made ritual offerings that, according to tradition, prevented trouble for the whole society. Students will learn that this pattern of aristocratic clans succeeding one another as rulers under the sovereignty of a ceremonial but powerless emperor continued into modern times.

Between the third and sixth centuries, when China was politically fragmented, many Chinese and Koreans migrated to Japan in search of refuge or opportunity. Those newcomers introduced many innovations, including advanced metallurgy, writing, silk production, textile manufacture, paper-making, and Buddhism. Also, China's immense power under the Tang Dynasty (618-907) stimulated Japanese interest in Chinese and Korean culture. Literary scholars, officials, and Buddhist monks traveled to Japan. In turn, Japanese intellectuals went west to seek knowledge, learn Confucian statecraft, and acquire Buddhist texts, some made in Korea with some of the earliest known wood-block printing technology. Students will examine Buddhism's success in Japan, a development helped by this religion's adaptation to the older Shinto practices. For example, Shinto nature gods became associated with Buddhist spirits and saints.

From about 1000 CE, the Japanese aristocratic class creatively combined Chinese or Korean ideas with Japanese ways to form a new civilization with distinctive literature and arts. For example, Japanese officials adopted rules of government derived from imperial China but tailored them to their own smaller

population and territory. Scholars developed a writing system that used simplified Chinese characters to represent Japanese sounds. Moreover, several aristocratic women wrote literary works in Japanese. Students may read selections from the *Tale of Genji*, a novel about a courtier's life written by Lady Murasaki Shikibu sometime between 990 and 1012.

Between the ninth and the early fourteenth century, the Fujiwara and the Miramoto families ruled Japan in succession. In the 1180s, the Miramoto instituted a military government headed by a “great general,” or *shogun*. Students will learn that from that point to the mid-nineteenth century, professional fighters of high social status, a class known as *samurai*, ran the Japanese state. Some of those warriors became great estate lords called *daimyo*. The great majority of them, however, served more powerful families as cavalry soldiers dedicated to a code of courage, honor, and martial skill, a tradition that proved an enduring element of Japanese culture. During those centuries, Japan's agriculture, population, and urbanization continued to expand. Buddhism, notably the school known as Zen, spread more widely among laboring men and women. Exchanges with China and Korea grew, as merchants traded luxury goods in return for Japanese silver, copper, timber, and steel swords.

The Chinese government began issuing paper money in 1024 C.E. The use of paper money continued through the Sung, Yuan, and Ming dynasties. They stopped using paper money around 1430 C.E. because counterfeiting and other factors caused people to distrust paper currency and refuse to accept it in exchange for goods and services.

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439       The Mongol rulers of China tried twice to invade Japan in the late thirteenth  
440 century but failed both times. Nevertheless Japan moved into a long period when  
441 the *shoguns* had little control over the great *daimyo* lords. Strong central  
442 government reappeared only in the sixteenth century with the rise of the  
443 Tokugawa Shogunate.

444

#### 445 **Medieval Europe**

446       Geographically, northern Europe lies within the temperate climatic zone that  
447 in early medieval times was heavily forested. Atlantic westerly winds bring high  
448 rainfall, mostly in winter, to ocean-facing Europe. Deeper into Eurasia, however,  
449 these latitudes become drier and colder. In Mediterranean Europe, mild, rainy  
450 winters and hot, dry summers prevail. Beginning in ancient times, farmers  
451 converted forests of southern Europe into wheat fields, olive orchards, and  
452 vineyards. Farming advanced more slowly in the dense woodlands and marshes  
453 of the north.

454       Students learn in earlier studies that Europe was incorporated into the Roman  
455 Empire. In the fifth and sixth centuries, however, the western empire fragmented,  
456 causing population to fall, cities to shrink, and agriculture to contract. Students  
457 may read selections from the historian Tacitus regarding the armed Germanic  
458 migrants who overran Europe, dividing the region into small rudimentary  
459 kingdoms. The major exception was Iberia, where Muslim warriors founded a  
460 strong state. Students may investigate the reign of Charlemagne (768-814), the

Christian monarch who temporarily reunited a large part of Europe in the late eighth century and shaped the history of Europe for many centuries.

After Charlemagne, political order was established in parts of western Europe through feudal relations. Students explore the fundamental elements of this system in which powerful noble warriors offered protection and farm estates, or manors, to less powerful knights in return for loyalty and military service. Nobles gained rights to hand down landed property to heirs. Consequently, mothers and prospective wives often exerted great influence over marriages and family alliances. Across much of Europe, landlords subjected ordinary men and women to serfdom, a form of bondage that tied peasants permanently to estates and obligated them to give their master labor and crops in return for security.

Together, serfs and free peasants employed new technologies, such as the moldboard plow, to open new farm lands in Europe and, starting in the tenth century, send agricultural production soaring. After about 1000 CE, strong new centralized states began to emerge, notably England, France, and the Holy Roman (German) Empire. Students learn that aristocratic families had enduring success in England in establishing institutions such as Parliament, limiting the power of the monarch in some measure. Students study the Magna Carta as an example of the ways that the power of monarchs was limited during this era.

Students may trace on a map the spread of Christianity across Europe from the fourth century, especially after the Roman emperors themselves converted to this faith. The Church, whose hierarchy of clerics extended from the Pope down to the village priest, became the largest, most integrated organization in Europe.

484 Students may investigate the significance of conflict between popes who claimed  
485 political supremacy in Europe and secular monarchs who successfully resisted it.  
486 Students learn about the split between the Orthodox Church, which  
487 acknowledged the leadership of the patriarch of Constantinople, and the Catholic  
488 Church, which remained loyal to the authority of the pope in Rome. Students may  
489 also explore the Church's crucial cultural achievements, including the  
490 establishment of Latin as a unifying language, patronage of universities, and the  
491 founding of monastic orders that preserved Greek and Roman texts. Students  
492 may examine the writings of Thomas Aquinas (1225-1274) to highlight  
493 developments in European philosophy and theology.

494 Between about 1000 and 1300 CE, the navies and traders of European  
495 states, notably in the city states of Venice and Genoa Italy, rose to dominate  
496 long-distance commerce in the Mediterranean and Black Seas, largely displacing  
497 Muslim and Byzantine Christian merchants. In those centuries, Mediterranean  
498 trade flourished, linking Europe more firmly to the networks of Africa and Asia  
499 and contributing to the rise of towns and manufacturing as far north as  
500 Scandinavia. Economic vitality in Europe also propelled Christian knights, and  
501 peasants who followed them, to seek new land and wealth. Teachers may  
502 encourage students to place the Holy Land Crusades of the eleventh to  
503 fourteenth centuries in the context of similar military expansion in the Iberian  
504 Peninsula. The conquests in Iberia eliminated the Muslim states there, though  
505 the Eastern Crusades in Syria, Palestine, and North Africa did not permanently  
506 succeed against Muslim opposition. Students can also explore how the Crusades

led to the Turkish incursions into ~~southeastern~~ Eastern Europe, the European failure to prevent these invasions, and the eventual Turkish conquest of the region. Both the Crusades and Mediterranean trade facilitated the diffusion of both technologies and scientific ideas from the Muslim lands to Europe.

1. In the fourteenth century, Europe suffered severe losses of population and production owing to climatic changes of the Little Ice Age and to the disease pandemic, known in Europe as the Black Death that swept across Eurasia and northern Africa between the 1330s and 1350s. Students may explore a variety of descriptions of the pandemic's effects on European and Middle Eastern societies. Also in this period, part of western Europe's Jewish population, already having suffered expulsions and persecution, and now blamed for the pandemic, migrated ~~into~~ Eastern Europe and Russia to create vibrant new communities. The fourteenth century troubles caused such labor shortages that in Western Europe former serfs sold their labor on the free market, and ~~Medieval guilds provided training and improved job skills while at the same time acted as monopolies to restrict competition in their trades.~~ Estate lords lost power to rising centralized kingdoms. In the fifteenth century

Europe's population and economic health gradually recovered, and Iberian mariners launched their explorations of the African coasts, India and eventually the Americas.

## **Meso-American and Andean Civilizations**

Students begin their study of civilizations in the Americas by investigating the large-scale geographical features of the two continents. A world map shows that the north-south axis of the Americas extends nearly 11,000 miles. That axis starts at the frigid Arctic rim of North America, crosses the equatorial rain forests of the Amazon River basin, and ends at Tierra Del Fuego at the southern tip of South America. Students may note other large features of the two continents, for example, the mountain spine that runs nearly their entire length. This chain of highlands divides the Americas longitudinally, separating narrow coastal plains on the Pacific from broad plains on the eastern side that stretch toward the Atlantic. Students may also note several great river systems, especially the Mississippi and the Amazon, which have been channels of human communication since ancient times.

With the development of agriculture in Meso-America and the Andean highlands after 3000 BCE, farmers laid foundations for developments in technology, social organization, and religious practice associated with early civilizations, notably the Olmec and Chavín in the second millennium BCE. This study focuses on the later civilizations of the Maya and Aztecs in the temperate and tropical lands of Meso-America and the Incas in the Andes.

Between about 200 to 900 CE, the Maya region of southern Mexico, Guatemala, and Beliz had more than fifty independent city-states. Some of the largest cities, for example, Tikal in Guatemala and Calakmul in Mexico, had populations of up to 500,000. Enjoying rich maize agriculture and a complex trade network, Maya societies produced monumental architecture, astronomy



observatories, a pictographic writing system that yielded libraries of thousands of books, and a sophisticated calendar system based on a fifty-two-year cycle.

Students may compare mathematical systems that developed in Afroeurasia with Maya mathematics, which utilized positional notation, the concept of zero, and a base-20 numerical system. The monarchs and aristocratic families who ruled these city-states kept order and defended their lands in wars with other city-states. They also performed elaborate religious rituals to conciliate the gods who, Mayans believed, commanded the rain and sun. Farmers, artisans, and hunters paid taxes and supplied labor for construction of public temples, palaces, and ceremonial ball courts. After about 750 CE, conflict intensified among city-states, monumental construction diminished, and cities were gradually abandoned. Teachers may ask students to explore various theories historians have offered to explain Maya decline, including ecological degradation such as deforestation and erosion.

The Aztec and Inca states both emerged as empires in the fifteenth century. The Aztecs, a people who originally migrated from northern Mexico, owed a strong cultural debt to the Maya and other earlier civilization builders in Meso-America. Aztec armies achieved control over much of central Mexico and created a state based on ingenious methods of farming, collection of tribute from conquered peoples, and an extensive network of markets and trade routes. Students may query Aztec ritual sacrifice and how its practice might be explained.

Students may compare the Aztec empire with the Inca state that arose in Andean South America. The Inca rulers built a highly centralized political system that included a system of food distribution in times of poor harvests. They also created a network of about 25,000 miles of government controlled roads that ran along the Andes spine and served military, administrative, and commercial purposes. In contrast to the Aztecs, the Incas did not have a writing system. Students, however, may research Andean *quipus*, or sets of colored and knotted strings used to keep complex records.

Both the Aztec and Inca empires fell to Spanish newcomers in the early sixteenth centuries. Students may assess explanations that historians have given for their defeat at the hands of small numbers of Europeans. Two key factors aided European military efforts. The first was the introduction of infectious diseases, such as smallpox and measles, which were endemic in Africa and Asia, but against which American Indian populations lacked even partial immunities. These diseases began to ravage societies in both North and South America shortly after the Spanish invasions got underway. The second factor was help from Aztec conquered tribes who wanted revenge.

### **The Renaissance**

This unit examines the origins and significance of the Renaissance in Western Europe with special focus on developments in Italy. From the late thirteenth through fifteenth centuries, the Italian Peninsula was the principal beneficiary of the expansion and intensification of European contact with Africa

and Asia through maritime commerce in the Indian Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea and the revival of trade across the Silk Roads. Students should trace the rise of banking paying particular attention to bankers in the Italian city-states of Florence and Venice and the ways in which they facilitated commerce by moving money to their branches as far away as England and Cyprus. Through long-distance trade, a number of technologies from Asia were first diffused to Italy and facilitated, for example, the development of the first European silk, paper and gunpowder mills. As a consequence of long-distance trade and manufacturing, and the rise of a banking system, the Italian Peninsula witnessed significant urbanization and the formation of prosperous independent city-states such as Venice, Genoa, Florence and Milan. Much like energy today, spices were a key to wealth in Renaissance Europe. The quest for a western sea route to the Indies and the source of spices propelled the maritime explorations of Columbus, da Gama, Magellan and others.

With wealth generated from trade and industry, and inspired by a sense of commercial and political rivalry, the Italian city-states experienced a remarkable burst of creativity that produced the artistic, literary and scientific advances of the Renaissance. Florence and Venice in particular were important centers in both the creation and spreading of Renaissance ideas. Through extensive contact with Byzantine and Islamic scholars, a considerable body of Greco-Roman knowledge was rediscovered. This revival of classical learning fostered a new interest in humanism—defined as the process by which both the moral and natural world can be understood through human reason and investigation. Humanism

was an important product of the Renaissance and played a significant role in advancing science, mathematics, and engineering techniques, as well as the understanding of human anatomy and astronomy. Humanism also facilitated considerable achievements in literature and the arts. Students may research the literature of Dante Alighieri, Machiavelli, and William Shakespeare and the painting and sculpture of Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo di Buonarroti Simoni. After 1455, the printing press, using moveable metal type (technology developed separately in Korea seventy years earlier), and the availability of manufactured paper proved to be important means for disseminating humanism and the outcomes of the Italian Renaissance to other parts of Europe and beyond. In Northern Europe, humanist interest in the origin and development of languages inspired the creation of new and more exacting Greek and Latin versions of the New Testament as well as vernacular translations of the Bible. The development of Christian Humanism and the emphasis upon an exacting reading of the Christian scriptures were important influences upon early Protestant thinkers associated with the Reformation. The end of the Italian Renaissance in the sixteenth century is associated with the growing importance of Atlantic trade relative to that of the Mediterranean, and French and Spanish invasions that compromised the independence of Italian city-states.

#### **The Historical Developments of the Reformation**

At the onset of this unit, students become familiar with Christian Humanism, which included the ideas of Desiderius Erasmus and the significance of the

translation of the Bible into the vernacular (particularly William Tyndale's English version published in 1526). Students also study the rise of religious conflict and persecution in Spain at the onset of the Early Modern Period. Centuries of cooperation between Jews and Muslims were ended by the expansion of the Spanish kingdom of Ferdinand and Isabella. Religious persecution was manifest in the Spanish Inquisition and the expulsion of Jews and Muslims from Spain in 1492.

The central focus of this unit is upon the Reformation in Europe. By the early sixteenth century, criticism of the clerical and institutional practices of the Catholic Church (e.g., the selling of indulgences and corruption by the clergy) was extensive. Influenced by Christian Humanism, Martin Luther developed a theological basis for this critique in arguing that Christian religious practice be strictly guided by knowledge from within the New Testament alone (*sola scriptura*) and that salvation was justified by 'faith alone.' John Calvin applied the notion of *sola scriptura* to the Old Testament as well. The distinctions between Lutheranism and Calvinism were significant and led to institutional division within Protestantism. The key distinctive feature of Calvinism was its focus on predestination and denial of free will, whereby those elected by God were represented as certain of salvation and incapable of denying grace.

Denominationalism and demands for church self-government were important consequences of the Protestant Reformation. Students may compare Protestant and Catholic belief and practice by researching Catholic responses to Protestantism. They may also study the role of the Council of Trent and the

Jesuits within the Counter-Reformation, as well as the revitalization and reformation of the Catholic Church in the sixteenth century.

The political consequences of the Reformation were important. Most of Germanic Europe became Protestant, while most of Latin Europe remained loyal to Rome. Religious differences exacerbated political conflict and rivalry in early modern Europe. Throughout Europe, the secular power of kings and local rulers grew at the expense of church authority and facilitated centralization and in some cases (as in France) of absolutism through the conceptualization of a divine right of kings.

Christian reformation, and its exacerbation of political rivalry in Western Europe, played a significant role in motivating colonization of the Americas, and Catholicism in particular played an important role in early colonial societies in Latin American and the Philippines. Christian reformation also played a contributing role in European contact with Africa and Asia during the early modern period, and indeed much of the first European knowledge and investigation of Asia and Africa came from the Jesuits and other Catholic missionary orders.

Religious enthusiasm and challenge to orthodoxy in the early modern period was not unique to Europe. In South Asia Sikhism arose as a new religion founded by Guru Nanak, a social reformer who challenged the authority of the Brahmin and the power of the Mughal empire. Students may learn about the Sikh Scripture (Guru Granth Sahib), articles of faith, turban, and Sikh history. The three basic principles of Sikhism are honest living, sharing with the needy, and

praying to the same and one God. In Iran, the Safavid Dynasty gave support to the Shi'a branch of Islam, challenging Sunni authority. On a global scale, religious change in the early modern period tended to promote more personal forms of practice at the expense of the power of entrenched religious institutions and clerics. Students can create a chart, map, or time line representing the establishment and distribution of major world religions.

### **The Scientific Revolution**

This unit of study examines the Scientific Revolution in early modern Europe. The long-term origins of the Scientific Revolution were rooted in the historical connections with Greco-Roman rationalism; Jewish, Christian, and Muslim science; and Renaissance humanism. European exploration and colonization in this period also stimulated a desire for intellectual understanding of the human and natural world. The methodologies associated with the Scientific Revolution including empiricism, scientific observation, mathematical proof, and experimental science. A number of significant inventions and instruments in this period—the telescope, microscope, thermometer, and barometer— furthered scientific knowledge and understanding. Students may research many of the more significant scientific theories in astronomy and physics that developed during the Scientific Revolution, including those associated with Galileo Galilei, Nicolaus Copernicus, Johannes Kepler, and Sir Isaac Newton. Students may also compare and contrast the important scientific methodologies advanced by Rene Descartes and Sir Francis Bacon.

Although not without challenge, scientific thinking and rational thought in Europe were reconciled with religious ideas and practice, in particular with Calvinist forms of Protestantism, where belief in providence and predestination encouraged investigation into the patterns of the natural world to discover the plan of the divine. Newton’s recognition that nature was understandable, predictable, and bound by natural laws proved an important inspiration to Locke and other early thinkers associated with the Enlightenment who argued that such laws and understandings were applicable to the human and moral world as well.

The development of a unique culture of scientific inquiry in Europe was a product of its autonomous universities, where scholars received some legal protection and were relatively free to study and argue what they pleased. It was also a consequence of European engagement with Asian learning and knowledge and the challenge of categorizing and understanding unimagined plants and animals in the Americas. Gradually, European scientific knowledge was beginning to inform military, agricultural, and metallurgical technologies. By the early eighteenth century, this culture of scientific inquiry was diffused beyond Europe through the establishment of universities in Mexico, Peru, and North America.

### **Political and Economic Change in the Sixteenth, Seventeenth, and Eighteenth Centuries**

This unit begins with an investigation of the cultural, economic, and political origins of European overseas expansion in the Early Modern Period, with special



attention paid to the early initiative of Portugal and Spain in the late fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Students can investigate the significance and means of incorporation and modification of Asian technologies in Europe’s navigational, maritime, and military development in the period. The Spanish and Portuguese conquests in the Americas are examined with special focus upon the role of disease in facilitating colonization. Students may investigate the hybrid nature of Colonial Latin America and assess the contributions of native peoples to the cultural, economic, and social practices of the region by 1750. Seventeenth-century Dutch, English, and French conquest and colonization in the Caribbean and North America are introduced and can be compared with developments in Latin America.

The Early Modern Period witnessed greater global connection and exchange, as European conquests and encounters in the Americas linked both hemispheres in significant ways. The Columbian Exchange marks the important biological exchange of disease, flora, and fauna between both hemispheres. The diffusion of Afroeurasian diseases to the Americas had catastrophic demographic consequences, and conversely the demographic impact in Afroeurasia of the tillage of American crops such as maize and potatoes was positive. European plantation and extractive economies led to the development of coercive labor systems in response to labor shortages in the Americas. Silver from the Americas played an important role in the creation of a global economy in this period as Europeans traded the precious metal for goods from China and other parts of the world. European states expanded their overseas commerce during

759 this period, though they did not seize extensive territories in Asia or Africa before  
760 1750. Asia was still the source of the bulk of the world’s manufactures, and to a  
761 significant extent, as in the case of silver, European potential for economic  
762 expansion was bound ultimately by Asian demand. Students can map much of  
763 the content of this unit from the more important voyages of exploration to the  
764 development of global trading patterns and the location of European colonies by  
765 1750.

766 This unit concludes with a study of the Enlightenment and its political and  
767 social impact by the end of the eighteenth century. The long-term origins of the  
768 Enlightenment can be seen in the historical connections with Greco-Roman  
769 political philosophy, Renaissance humanism, Protestantism, and the Scientific  
770 Revolution. Beginning in the late seventeenth century, philosophers began to  
771 employ the use of reason to scrutinize previously accepted political and social  
772 doctrines. Students can investigate the writings and ideas of Enlightenment  
773 thinkers such as John Locke, Charles-Louis Montesquieu, and Thomas  
774 Jefferson, and gauge their impact on later revolutionary and democratic  
775 movements and institutions. The study of the Enlightenment concludes with an  
776 analysis of important Anglo-American historical documents that consider the role  
777 and structure of the state and the liberties of institutions, groups, and individuals.  
778 In this regard, students can compare the Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights,  
779 and the American Declaration of Independence.

**Commented [JC1]:** The Portuguese, Spanish and Dutch were active in Africa and Asia from 1500 on.

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783 **History–Social Science Content Standards**

784 **Grade Seven**

785 **World History and Geography: Medieval and Early Modern Times**

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787 **7.1 Students analyze the causes and effects of the vast expansion and**  
788 **ultimate disintegration of the Roman Empire.**

789 1. Study the early strengths and lasting contributions of Rome (e.g.,  
790 significance of Roman citizenship; rights under Roman law; Roman art,  
791 architecture, engineering, and philosophy; preservation and transmission  
792 of Christianity). and its ultimate internal weaknesses (e.g., rise of  
793 autonomous military powers within the empire, undermining of citizenship  
794 by the growth of corruption and slavery, lack of education, and distribution  
795 of news).

796 2. Discuss the geographic borders of the empire at its height and the factors  
797 that threatened its territorial cohesion.

798 3. Describe the establishment by Constantine of the new capital in  
799 Constantinople and the development of the Byzantine Empire, with an  
800 emphasis on the consequences of the development of two distinct  
801 European civilizations, Eastern Orthodox and Roman Catholic, and their  
802 two distinct views on church-state relations.

803 **7.2 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and**  
804 **social structures of the civilizations of Islam in the Middle Ages.**

1. Identify the physical features and describe the climate of the Arabian peninsula, its relationship to surrounding bodies of land and water, and nomadic and sedentary ways of life.
2. Trace the origins of Islam and the life and teachings of Muhammad, including Islamic teachings on the connection with Judaism and Christianity.
3. Explain the significance of the Qur'an and the Sunnah as the primary sources of Islamic beliefs, practice, and law, and their influence in Muslims' daily life.
4. Discuss the expansion of Muslim rule through military conquests and treaties, emphasizing the cultural blending within Muslim civilization and the spread and acceptance of Islam and the Arabic language.
5. Describe the growth of cities and the establishment of trade routes among Asia, Africa, and Europe, the products and inventions that traveled along these routes (e.g., spices, textiles, paper, steel, new crops), and the role of merchants in Arab society.
6. The location of the Islamic world was ideal for trade. It lay between the Mediterranean Sea and the Indian Ocean and covered parts of Europe, Africa, and Asia. Taking financial risk and seeking profit, Muslim traders traveled by land and sea, creating a network of trade routes that spanned three continents. Muslim bankers issued letters of credit that could be used anywhere in the empire. These lightweight paper documents were easier to pack and safer to carry than heavy bags of coins.

7. Understand the intellectual exchanges among Muslim scholars of Eurasia and Africa and the contributions Muslim scholars made to later civilizations in the areas of science, geography, mathematics, philosophy, medicine, art, and literature.

**7.3 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the civilizations of China in the Middle Ages.**

1. Describe the reunification of China under the Tang Dynasty and reasons for the spread of Buddhism in Tang China, Korea, and Japan.
2. Describe agricultural, technological, and commercial developments during the Tang and Sung periods. Analyze the influences of Confucianism and changes in Confucian thought during the Sung and Mongol periods.
3. Understand the importance of both overland trade and maritime expeditions between China and other civilizations in the Mongol Ascendancy and Ming Dynasty.
4. Trace the historic influence of such discoveries as tea, the manufacture of paper, wood-block printing, the compass, and gunpowder.
5. Describe the development of the imperial state and the scholar-official class.

**7.4 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the sub-Saharan civilizations of Ghana and Mali in Medieval Africa.**

1. Study the Niger River and the relationship of vegetation zones of forest, savannah, and desert to trade in gold, salt, food, and slaves; and the growth of the Ghana and Mali empires.
2. Analyze the importance of family, labor specialization, and regional commerce in the development of states and cities in West Africa.
3. Describe the role of the trans-Saharan caravan trade in the changing religious and cultural characteristics of West Africa and the influence of Islamic beliefs, ethics, and law.
4. Trace the growth of the Arabic language in government, trade, and Islamic scholarship in West Africa.
5. Describe the importance of written and oral traditions in the transmission of African history and culture.

**7.5 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the civilizations of Medieval Japan.**

1. Describe the significance of Japan's proximity to China and Korea and the intellectual, linguistic, religious, and philosophical influence of those countries on Japan.
2. Discuss the reign of Prince Shotoku of Japan and the characteristics of Japanese society and family life during his reign.
3. Describe the values, social customs, and traditions prescribed by the lord-vassal system consisting of *shogun*, *daimyo*, and *samurai* and the lasting influence of the warrior code in the twentieth century.
4. Trace the development of distinctive forms of Japanese Buddhism.

5. Study the ninth and tenth centuries' golden age of literature, art, and drama and its lasting effects on culture today, including Murasaki Shikibu's *Tale of Genji*.

6. Analyze the rise of a military society in the late twelfth century and the role of the samurai in that society.

**7.6 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the civilizations of Medieval Europe.**

2. Study the geography of the Europe and the Eurasian land mass, including its location, topography, waterways, vegetation, and climate and their relationship to ways of life in Medieval Europe.

3. Describe the spread of Christianity north of the Alps and the roles played by the early church and by monasteries in its diffusion after the fall of the western half of the Roman Empire.

4. Understand the development of feudalism, its role in the medieval European economy, the way in which it was influenced by physical geography (the role of the manor and the growth of towns), and how feudal relationships provided the foundation of political order.

5. Demonstrate an understanding of the conflict and cooperation between the Papacy and European monarchs (e.g., Charlemagne, Gregory VII, Emperor Henry IV).

6. Know the significance of developments in medieval English legal and constitutional practices and their importance in the rise of modern democratic thought and representative institutions (e.g., Magna Carta,

parliament, development of habeas corpus, an independent judiciary in England).

7. Discuss the causes and course of the religious Crusades and their effects on the Christian, Muslim, and Jewish populations in Europe, with emphasis on the increasing contact by Europeans with cultures of the Eastern Mediterranean world.

8. Map the spread of the bubonic plague from Central Asia to China, the Middle East, and Europe and describe its impact on global population.

9. Understand the importance of the Catholic church as a political, intellectual, and aesthetic institution (e.g., founding of universities, political and spiritual roles of the clergy, creation of monastic and mendicant religious orders, preservation of the Latin language and religious texts, St. Thomas Aquinas's synthesis of classical philosophy with Christian theology, and the concept of "natural law").

10. Know the history of the decline of Muslim rule in the Iberian Peninsula that culminated in the Reconquista and the rise of Spanish and Portuguese kingdoms.

**7.7 Students compare and contrast the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the Meso-American and Andean civilizations.**

1. Study the locations, landforms, and climates of Mexico, Central America, and South America and their effects on Mayan, Aztec, and Incan economies, trade, and development of urban societies.



2. Study the roles of people in each society, including class structures, family life, warfare, religious beliefs and practices, and slavery.
3. Explain how and where each empire arose and how the Aztec and Incan empires were defeated by the Spanish.
4. Describe the artistic and oral traditions and architecture in the three civilizations.
5. Describe the Meso-American achievements in astronomy and mathematics, including the development of the calendar and the Meso-American knowledge of seasonal changes to the civilizations' agricultural systems.

**7.8 Students analyze the origins, accomplishments, and geographic diffusion of the Renaissance.**

1. Describe the way in which the revival of classical learning and the arts fostered a new interest in humanism (i.e., a balance between intellect and religious faith).
2. Explain the importance of Florence in the early stages of the Renaissance and the growth of independent trading cities (e.g., Venice), with emphasis on the cities' importance in the spread of Renaissance ideas Understand the effects of the reopening of the ancient "Silk Road" between Europe and China, including Marco Polo's travels and the location of his routes.
3. Describe the growth and effects of new ways of disseminating information (e.g., the ability to manufacture paper, translation of the Bible into the vernacular, printing).

4. Detail advances made in literature, the arts, science, mathematics, cartography, engineering, and the understanding of human anatomy and astronomy (e.g., by Dante Alighieri, Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo di Buonarroti Simoni, Johann Gutenberg, William Shakespeare).

#### **7.9 Students analyze the historical developments of the Reformation.**

1. List the causes for the internal turmoil in and weakening of the Catholic church (e.g., tax policies, selling of indulgences).
2. Describe the theological, political, and economic ideas of the major figures during the Reformation (e.g., Desiderius Erasmus, Martin Luther, John Calvin, William Tyndale).
3. Explain Protestants' new practices of church self-government and the influence of those practices on the development of democratic practices and ideas of federalism.
4. Identify and locate the European regions that remained Catholic and those that became Protestant and explain how the division affected the distribution of religions in the New World.
5. Analyze how the Counter-Reformation revitalized the Catholic church and the forces that fostered the movement (e.g., St. Ignatius of Loyola and the Jesuits, the Council of Trent).
6. Understand the institution and impact of missionaries on Christianity and the diffusion of Christianity from Europe to other parts of the world in the medieval and early modern periods; locate missions on a world map.

7. Describe the Golden Age of cooperation between Jews and Muslims in medieval Spain that promoted creativity in art, literature, and science, including how that cooperation was terminated by the religious persecution of individuals and groups (e.g., the Spanish Inquisition and the expulsion of Jews and Muslims from Spain in 1492).

**7.10 Students analyze the historical developments of the Scientific Revolution and its lasting effect on religious, political, and cultural institutions.**

1. Discuss the roots of the Scientific Revolution (e.g., Greek rationalism; Jewish, Christian, and Muslim science; Renaissance humanism; new knowledge from global exploration).
2. Understand the significance of the new scientific theories (e.g., those of Copernicus, Galileo, Kepler, Newton) and the significance of new inventions (e.g., the telescope, microscope, thermometer, barometer).
3. Understand the scientific method advanced by Bacon and Descartes, the influence of new scientific rationalism on the growth of democratic ideas, and the coexistence of science with traditional religious beliefs.

**7.11 Students analyze political and economic change in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries (the Age of Exploration, the Enlightenment, and the Age of Reason).**

1. Know the great voyages of discovery, the locations of the routes, and the influence of cartography in the development of a new European worldview.

- 986 2. Discuss the exchanges of plants, animals, technology, culture, and ideas  
987 among Europe, Africa, Asia, and the Americas in the fifteenth and  
988 sixteenth centuries and the major economic, and social effects on each  
989 continent.
- 990 3. Examine the origins of modern capitalism; the influence of mercantilism  
991 and cottage industry, the elements and importance of a market economy  
992 in seventeenth-century Europe.
- 993 4. Describe the changing international trading and marketing patterns,  
994 including their locations on a world map; and the influence of explorers  
995 and map makers.
- 996 5. Explain how the main ideas of the Enlightenment can be traced back to  
997 such movements as the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the Scientific  
998 Revolution and to the Greeks, Romans, and Christianity.
- 999 6. Describe how democratic thought and institutions were influenced by  
1000 Enlightenment thinkers (e.g., John Locke, Charles-Louis Montesquieu,  
1001 American founders).
- 1002 7. Discuss how the principles in the Magna Carta were embodied in such  
1003 documents as the English Bill of Rights and the American Declaration of  
1004 Independence.